



Chronic Airway Colonization by *Achromobacter xylosoxidans* in Cystic Fibrosis Patients Is Not Sustained by Their Domestic Environment

Chloé Dupont, a,b Estelle Jumas-Bilak, a,b Clara Doisy, a Fabien Aujoulat, a Raphaël Chiron, a,c Hélène Marchandina,d

ABSTRACT Achromobacter spp. are nonfermentative Gram-negative bacilli considered emergent pathogens in cystic fibrosis (CF). Although some cross-transmission events between CF patients have been described, Achromobacter strains were mostly patient specific, suggesting sporadic acquisitions from nonhuman reservoirs. However, sources of these emergent CF pathogens remain unknown. A large collection of specimens (n = 273) was sampled in the homes of 3 CF patients chronically colonized by Achromobacter xylosoxidans with the aim of evaluating the potential role of domestic reservoirs in sustaining airway colonization of the patients. Samples were screened for the presence of Achromobacter by using genus-specific molecular detection. Species identification, multilocus genotypes, and antimicrobial susceptibility patterns observed for environmental isolates were compared with those of clinical strains. Patient homes hosted a high diversity of Achromobacter species (n = 7), including Achromobacter mucicolens and A. animicus, two species previously isolated from human samples only, and genotypes (n = 15), all showing an overall susceptibility to antimicrobial agents. Achromobacter strains were mostly isolated from indoor moist environments and siphons, which are potential reservoirs for several CF emerging pathogens. A. xylosoxidans, the worldwide prevalent species colonizing CF patients, was not the major Achromobacter species inhabiting domestic environments. A. xylosoxidans genotypes chronically colonizing the patients were not detected in their household environments. These results support the notions that the domestic environment could not be incriminated in sustained patient colonization and that after initial colonization, the environmental survival of A. xylosoxidans clones adapted to the CF airways is probably impaired.

IMPORTANCE Achromobacter spp. are worldwide emerging opportunistic pathogens in CF patients, able to chronically colonize the respiratory tract. Apart from regular consultations at the hospital CF center, patients spend most of their time at home. Colonization from nonhuman sources has been suggested, but the presence of Achromobacter spp. in CF patients' homes has not been explored. The domestic environments of CF patients chronically colonized by Achromobacter, especially wet environments, host several opportunistic pathogens, including a large diversity of Achromobacter species and genotypes. However, Achromobacter genotypes colonizing the patients were not detected in their domestic environments, making it unlikely that a shuttle between environment and CF airways is involved in persisting colonization. This also suggests that once the bacteria have adapted to the respiratory tract, their survival in the domestic environment is presumably impaired. Nevertheless, measures for reducing domestic patient exposure should be targeted on

Received 18 July 2018 **Accepted** 4 September 2018

Accepted manuscript posted online 14 September 2018

Citation Dupont C, Jumas-Bilak E, Doisy C, Aujoulat F, Chiron R, Marchandin H. 2018. Chronic airway colonization by *Achromobacter xylosoxidans* in cystic fibrosis patients is not sustained by their domestic environment. Appl Environ Microbiol 84:e01739-18. https://doi .org/10.1128/AEM.01739-18.

Editor Isaac Cann, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

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Address correspondence to Chloé Dupont, chloe.dupont@umontpellier.fr.

^aHydroSciences Montpellier, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, IRD, Montpellier, France

^bLaboratoire d'Ecologie Microbienne Hospitalière, CHU Montpellier, Montpellier, France

centre de Ressources et de Compétences de la Mucoviscidose, CHU Montpellier, Montpellier, France

^dDépartement de Microbiologie, CHU Nîmes, Nîmes, France

evacuation drains, which are frequently contaminated by CF opportunistic pathogens.

KEYWORDS Achromobacter, domestic environment, cystic fibrosis, habitat, drains, reservoir, chronic colonization, diversity, antimicrobial resistance

chromobacter is an opportunistic environmental bacterium identified in soil and water samples. This genus is nowadays considered a worldwide emerging pathogen in cystic fibrosis (CF) (1-3), with Achromobacter xylosoxidans being the most prevalent species (1, 2, 4). Except for outbreaks described in some CF centers (5, 6), studies investigating the diversity of Achromobacter spp. isolated from the airways of CF patients showed that Achromobacter spp. mostly originate from sporadic acquisition rather than from cross-transmissions or from the diffusion of a limited number of clones with epidemic success (1, 7, 8). While CF patients regularly visit hospitals for routine visits and to receive intravenous antibiotics, they spend much more time at home than at the hospital. A few studies investigated sources of pathogen acquisition by CF patients outside the hospital but were mainly focused on Pseudomonas aeruginosa. P. aeruginosa clone C, which is epidemic in CF, was isolated from different habitats, including river, pool or tap water, suggesting a genotype with a versatile lifestyle and diversified potential sources for acquisition (9). In domestic environments, even fewer investigations were conducted in both CF and non-CF patient homes and showed P. aeruginosa to be mainly localized in drains used for carrying off surplus liquid waste (10-12). However, in these studies, P. aeruginosa genotypes have not been studied, impairing any comparison between environmental and human strains. An investigation conducted in 50 homes of CF patients as soon as possible after the diagnosis of a first P. aeruginosa infection found (i) a low prevalence of P. aeruginosa in the home environment (5.9% of the samples, 18 patient homes) and (ii) identical genotypes of P. aeruginosa determined by amplified fragment length polymorphism in the domestic environment, mainly in bathroom samples, and in the patient airways in 9 cases (18% of the patients) (13).

Regarding Achromobacter spp., two environmental studies dedicated to searching for A. xylosoxidans were conducted on environmental samples of various origins but not in CF patient households. In those studies, Achromobacter appeared to be widely distributed in natural hydrosystems, houses, and hospitals (14, 15). In the present study, we assessed distribution and diversity of Achromobacter spp. in the homes of 3 CF patients chronically colonized by A. xylosoxidans with the aim of evaluating the potential role of home reservoirs in sustaining airway colonization of the patients.

(This work was presented in part at the 40th European Cystic Fibrosis Conference, 7 to 10 June 2017, Seville, Spain.)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Achromobacter-specific PCR in silico performances. Based on the Proteobacteria 16S rRNA gene aligned sequences (n = 4,592), only three regions allowing primer design (20 to 30 bp) showed sequences conserved among members of the Achromobacter genus and distinct from those of other genera. The two most distant sequences were chosen to design forward primer 638-F (5'-CGCAGGCGGTTCGGAAAGAAA-3') and reverse primer 810-R (5'-GCCTCCTGGGATAACACTGA-3'), allowing the amplification of a 174-bp product. Both primers exactly anneal to the sequences for type strains of 16 Achromobacter species available in RDP-II but also to sequences for type strains of 8 Bordetella species. If 2 nucleotide mismatches per primer are allowed, 9 other genera were detected: Advenella, Alcaligenes, Kerstersia, Pelistega, Pigmentiphaga, Pusillimonas, Taylorella, Candidimonas, and Eoetvoesia. Using the primer targeted on the third consensual region (amplification product of 120 bp) gave no gain in specificity (data not shown).

Achromobacter detection by specific PCR and cultivation on selective medium. The performance of the Achromobacter selective agar medium described by Amoureux

TABLE 1 Description and obtained results for *Achromobacter* sp. isolates recovered from domestic environment samples^a

Sample ID	Room	Isolation source	Achromobacter species	ST/MLST	Associated bacteria identified by MALDI-TOF
P2-20	Bathroom	Right sink siphon water	A. aegrifaciens	350	A. radiobacter, P. nitroreducens
			A. aegrifaciens	350	
P2-97	Garden	Inside water hose swab	A. animicus	360	Bordetella sp., Pseudomonas sp.
P2-101		Plant (+roots)	A. spanius	352	
			Achromobacter gen. 9	351	
P2-106		Flowerpot soil	A. mucicolens	353	A. radiobacter
P5-11	Kitchen	Sink siphon water	A. marplatensis	354	Ochrobactrum sp.
P5-56	Bathroom 1	Washing machine evacuation	A. mucicolens	355	Bordetella sp., S. maltophilia, Ochrobactrum sp.
P5-58		Bath mat	A. spanius	356	
P5-50	Bathroom 2	1st-flush sink water	A. xylosoxidans	175*	A. radiobacter
P5-64	Other	Tumble dryer reservoir	A. xylosoxidans	175*	
P5-71		Floor cloth bucket water	A. xylosoxidans	175*	O. anthropi, O. grignonense, Ochrobactrum sp.
			A. xylosoxidans	169*	
P5-72		Floor cloth	A. xylosoxidans	175*	Ochrobactrum sp.
P5-74	Garden	Vegetable garden soil	A. mucicolens	357	
			A. mucicolens	358	
P12-26	Kitchen	Washing machine evacuation	A. aegrifaciens	143*	Bordetella sp., O. anthropi, A. radiobacter
P12-49	Bathroom	Shower siphon water	A. mucicolens	359	P. nitroreducens, Pseudomonas sp., Ochrobactrum sp.
P12-61		Toothbrush glass	A. mucicolens	349	A. radiobacter
		-	A. mucicolens	349	
			A. mucicolens	349	

aSample identification (ID) is composed of the patient number followed by the sample number. *, ST already described in PubMLST database. gen., genogroup; A., Agrobacterium/Rhizobium; P., Pseudomonas; S., Stenotrophomonas; O., Ochrobactrum.

et al. has not been fully validated, i.e., evaluated for all species in the genus Achromobacter or a variety of strains within a species (15). Therefore, to overcome a potential culture bias, the strategy performed in this study was to screen cultures obtained on a nonselective medium by applying the genus-specific PCR before cultivating the samples onto the Achromobacter selective agar medium. Among the 273 cultivable communities obtained on Trypticase soya (TS) agar, 92 showed a positive Achromobacterspecific PCR result, indicating that the prevalence of members of the genus Achromobacter was 33.7% in the collection of 273 samples from CF patient houses.

From the 92 corresponding cultures on the Achromobacter selective medium, a total of 316 colonies corresponding to different morphotypes were identified by matrixassisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) and 21 isolates from 15 samples were affiliated with the genus Achromobacter (13 with an identification score between 1.70 and 1.99 and 8 strains with a score of \geq 2 using the Microflex Biotyper database [Bruker, USA]). In 11 of these 15 samples, Achromobacter was cocultured on the selective medium with members of other bacterial genera, including Bordetella (Table 1). Achromobacter species strains were isolated by culture from only 16.5% of the PCR-positive samples.

The low rate of isolation is possibly due to the partial selectivity of the medium, allowing the growth of some other genera than Achromobacter that may hide the growth of Achromobacter in the case that the inoculum is of low density. Moreover, the growing capacity of the selective medium was not evaluated for all of the 19 species currently described for the Achromobacter genus (15). False-positive PCR by crossreaction with 10 predicted genera is unlikely to explain the observed level of discrepancy between PCR and culture. Particularly, Bordetella was isolated from only 10% of PCR-positive samples and coisolated with Achromobacter strains in only 3 samples.

As generally observed for targeted approaches of bacterial diversity, the full recovery of all the members of the genus was not warranted and the diversity of Achromobacter spp. may be higher than described. Metabarcoding that avoids cultural bias can be proposed for accurate detection of Achromobacter in domestic environments as previously performed for indoor community description (16). However, coupling detection by specific PCR and cultivation on selective medium as described here provide a useful tool for studies aiming for prevalence assessment in the environment while also recovering living material for further genotyping and phenotyping.

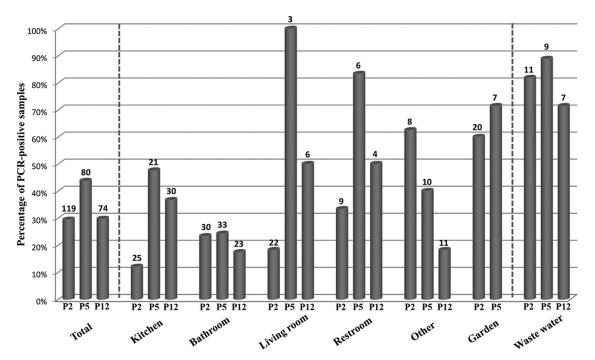


FIG 1 Samples positive by Achromobacter-specific PCR: total, per location, and in the wastewaters for the 3 homes studied (those of P2, P5, and P12). The number at the top of each bar represents the sample number.

Cartography of Achromobacter in patients' homes. We explored a limited number of CF patients' homes (n = 3) (patients P2, P5, and P12) but analyzed a large number of sites per home to accurately delineate Achromobacter reservoirs. Positive Achromobacter-specific PCR was used for mapping Achromobacter habitats. The majority of PCR-positive samples came from indoors (82.5%), mostly from wet sites (78%). The majority of positive samples came from the kitchen for P5 and P12 (28.5% and 50%, respectively) and from the garden for P2 (35%) (Fig. 1). Twenty percent of all the PCR-positive samples came from the bathroom. Wastewater drainage systems were particularly contaminated, and 100% of 11 water samples from siphons were positive by Achromobacter-specific PCR (Fig. 1). Achromobacter was also highly prevalent in soils and plants samples, at 75% of positive samples.

Considering Achromobacter strains cultivated on the selective medium, the origin of the isolates was roughly similar to that highlighted by PCR mapping, and most strains came from the indoor environment, mainly from the bathroom in moist sites, including the bath mat, toothbrush glass, water evacuation of household appliances, siphons (washbasin, dish sink, or shower), and water from the toilet bowl (Table 1). Achromobacter strains were also detected in the washing machine drain in two houses. Outdoors, Achromobacter grew from three soil samples and one rhizosphere (Table 1).

In our study, water-containing evacuation systems were contaminated by Achromobacter spp. but also by several other known CF opportunistic pathogens (17-20), including Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, Bordetella, Ochrobactrum, and Agrobacterium/ Rhizobium. As shown in previous studies, wastewater drains are the primary habitat of P. aeruginosa (10–13); we confirm that siphons and other similar draining systems host a large number of opportunistic pathogens. These devices are more and more frequently described as reservoirs for pathogens and multidrug-resistant bacteria in both hospitals and domestic environments (21-23). Moreover, aerosolization and crosstransmission of pathogens from siphons have been demonstrated in recent carefully designed experimental studies (24, 25). Our results reinforced recommendations to CF patients for home cleaning that should be targeted to the bathroom, kitchen, and other wet sites, with particular emphasis on wastewater drains, including hidden drains in domestic appliances. We proposed regular biocidal decontamination of siphons of

water points of use (daily for the more exposing devices or weekly) and annual change of wastewater drains to reduce the global exposure to opportunistic pathogens, including multidrug-resistant bacteria.

High Achromobacter diversity in CF patients' homes. Achromobacter genotyping performed by multilocus sequence typing (MLST) allowed the accurate identification of species and the description of the sequence type (ST) diversity in CF domestic environments but also the comparison of results to international data. The 21 Achromobacter sp. isolates from patient homes belonged to 7 species and 15 STs (Table 1). Only 3 STs exactly matched available STs in the PubMLST database. Therefore, we found in 3 CF patient's homes 12 new genotypes within the genus Achromobacter.

Achromobacter mucicolens was the major species identified in this study (8 isolates from 5 samples) and the only one identified in every home. A. mucicolens was isolated from various types of samples, e.g., flowerpot, siphons, and toothbrush glass. Five STs were identified among the 8 A. mucicolens strains, and strains of 2 STs differing by 2 alleles were coisolated in a soil sample (P5-74) (Table 1).

Five *A. xylosoxidans* isolates were identified in 4 samples in only one home (P5): the first-flush water from the sink faucet in bathroom, the cleaning bucket, the floor cloth, and residual water in the reservoir of the tumble dryer (Table 1). *A. xylosoxidans* ST175 was identified in the 4 samples and associated with *A. xylosoxidans* ST169 in the floor cloth water sample; the 7 alleles of the MLST scheme differed between these two STs. ST175 was identified in the CF respiratory tract of another patient of the Montpellier CF center in 2014 and has been described worldwide from CF and non-CF samples (https://pubmlst.org). ST169 was described only for blood of a non-CF patient with a long-term line for dialysis in United Kingdom.

Other isolates belonged to *Achromobacter aegrifaciens* (2 samples in 2 houses, 3 isolates of 2 STs, including ST143, described for environmental samples in Belgium), *Achromobacter spanius* (2 isolates of different STs in 2 samples from 2 houses), *Achromobacter marplatensis*, *Achromobacter animicus*, and *Achromobacter* sp. genogroup 9 (one isolate each) (Table 1). Of note, the species *A. mucicolens* and *A. animicus* were until then isolated from human samples only. Most species identified from the domestic environment in our study were considered minor CF-associated species in several studies (8, 26–28). For example, *A. mucicolens*, a species described in 2013 on the basis of five human clinical isolates, including one from CF sputum (29), and currently only scarcely reported for CF, was the major species identified in domestic environments in this study. In contrast, *A. xylosoxidans*, the major species identified in CF patients, and chronically colonizing 80% of the CF patients in our center (7), was recovered from only one house.

We observed a high within-species genotype diversity among and within homes, and within samples, as well as one unknown species (*Achromobacter* genogroup 9) and numerous as-yet-unreported genotypes, highlighting a still unrecognized diversity of members of the genus *Achromobacter*.

Antimicrobial susceptibility profile of domestic Achromobacter isolates. Isolates were fully susceptible to penicillins, ceftazidime, carbapenems, colistin, levofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, and co-trimoxazole but resistant to cefoxitine, cefpodoxime, aztreonam, and fosfomycin (Table 2). A. xylosoxidans and A. aegrifaciens showed higher resistance to aminoglycosides and tetracycline than other species (Table 2). Isolates investigated in this study thus exhibited patterns similar to those observed for innately resistant A. xylosoxidans, i.e., resistance to many antibiotics, including cephalosporins (except ceftazidime) and aztreonam, with no additional acquired resistances. Only rare studies described the antimicrobial susceptibility profiles of nonhuman Achromobacter isolates; they reported resistance to aminoglycosides in Achromobacter sp. strains (unidentified species) recovered from non-CF domestic environments in Japan (14) and ciprofloxacinand/or imipenem-resistant A. xylosoxidans strains from non-CF domestic environments in France (100% and 10% of 9 isolates, respectively) (15).

TABLE 2 Antimicrobial susceptibility results for Achromobacter strains isolated from domestic environment samples and from the respiratory tracts of the 3 CF patients^a

	Sample ID or patient	ST	Result (%) for antibiotic tested at indicated cutoff value (in mm)											
Strain			AMX, 19	AMC, 19	PIP, 18–21	TPZ, 18-21	ATM, 21–24	TIC, 15–20	TCC, 15–20	FOX, 15–19	CTX, 15–23	CAZ, 15–18	FEP, 15-18	CF, 16–23
Environmental														
A. animicus	P2-97	360	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	R
A. mucicolens	P12-61 (1)	349	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S
	P12-61 (2)	349	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
	P12-61 (3)	349	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S
	P2-106	353	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
	P12-49	359	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	R
	P5-56	355	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
	P5-74 (1)	357	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S
	P5-74 (2)	358	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S
A. aegrifaciens	P2-20 (1)	350	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
	P2-20 (2)	350	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
	P12-26	143	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
A. spanius	P2-101 (1)	352	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
	P5-58	356	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
A. marplatensis	P5-11	354	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S
Achromobacter sp. gen. 9	P2-101 (2)	351	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	S
A. xylosoxidans	P5-71	175	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	R	R
ŕ	P5-64	175	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	R
	P5-72	175	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	R	R
	P5-50	175	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	S	S	R
	P5-71	169	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S
Patient														
A. xylosoxidans	Patient 2 Patient 5 Patient 12	328 27 327	S (60) R (100) S (75)	S (67) R (100) R (62)	S (100) R (100) S (100)	S (100) R (100) S (100)	R (100) R (100) R (100)	S (81) R (100) S (100)	S (89) R (100) S (100)	R (100) R (100) R (100)	R (100) R (100) R (100)	R (63) R (93) R (50)	R (100) R (100) R (100)	R (100) R (100) R (100)

aSample identification (ID) is composed of the patient number followed by the sample number. S, susceptible; R (in bold), resistant and intermediate. AMX, amoxicillin; AMC, amoxicillin-clavulanic acid; PIP, piperacillin; TPZ, piperacillin-tazobactam; ATM, aztreonam; TIC, ticarcillin; TCC, ticarcillin-clavulanic acid; FOX, cefoxitin; CTX, cefotaxime; CAZ, ceftazidime; FEP, cefepime; CF, cephalothin; CPD, cefpodoxime; IMP, imipenem; MEM, meropenem; GM, gentamicin; TM, tobramycin; NET, netilmicin; AKN, amikacin; FSF, fosfomycin; C, chloramphenicol; TET, tetracycline; CS, colistin; NA, nalidixic acid; OFX, ofloxacin; CIP, ciprofloxacin; LEV, levofloxacin; SXT, co-trimoxazole. Cutoff values were chosen as described by Dupont et al. (35); they consist of the susceptibility cutoff point edited for Acinetobacter by the Antibiogram Committee of the French Society for Microbiology in 2016 or, when not available, those edited for Enterobacteriaceae. For the 3 patients, the antibiogram result is a percentage of resistance or susceptibility obtained for the majority of the 27 colonies (P2), 15 colonies (P5), and 8 colonies (P12) isolated from the same sputum sample (35).

No link found between house and airways isolates. Patients P2, P5, and P12 were chronically colonized by A. xylosoxidans ST328, ST27, and ST327, respectively. No A. xylosoxidans isolates were found in the domestic environments of patients P2 and P12. The 5 A. xylosoxidans strains isolated in the home of patient P5 belonged to ST175 or ST169. These STs, respectively, differed by 4 and 7 alleles out of the 7 alleles of the MLST scheme from ST27, the ST of the strains recovered from the patient airways. Compared to ST27, each distinct allele differed by 10 to 31 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) for ST169 and by 2 to 5 SNPs for ST175.

The results suggested either the absence of an environmental reservoir for the strain colonizing the patients or the failure to detect an existing reservoir. Despite the intensive sampling performed, the presence of an undetected reservoir could not be totally ruled out even if a massive environmental reservoir is unlikely. Moreover, the absence of Achromobacter on patient personal items such as toothbrush glasses (i) suggested a low rate of transmission from patient to environment, (ii) reinforced the hypothesis of the absence of an environmental reservoir, and (iii) disproved the hypothesis that a domestic reservoir could be involved in the persistence of airway colonization by frequent reseeding. The correlated hypothesis that patients recontaminate their environment could also be rejected. These results suggested that after initial colonization from an environmental source and the subsequent persistence probably associated with specialization to the CF airways, the survival of CF airway-adapted A. xylosoxidans strains in the environment could be impaired. This hypothesis is supported by results of previous studies on other CF pathogens. Environmental investigations in the homes of CF patients who were chronically colonized by Burkholderia cepacia

TABLE 2 (Continued)

CPD, 21	IPM, 17–23	ETM, 22–25	MEM, 15–21	GM, 17	TM, 17	NET, 16	AKN, 15-18	FSF, 13–16	C, 17	TET, 12–15	CS, 12	NA, 14–19	OFX, 19–22	CIP, 21	LEV, 18–21	SXT, 13-16
_	-			-				_			•		-			
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	5
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	5
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	R	S	S	R	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	R	R	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	R	R	R	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
		c	c											c	c	S
R	S	S	S	R	R	R	R	R	S	R	S	R	R	S	S	2
R	S	S	S	R	R	R	R	R	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	5
R	S	S	S	R	R	S	S	R	S	R	S	S	R	S	S	5
R	S	S	S	R	R	R	R	R	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	5
R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
R (100)	S (92)	R (100)	S (100)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	R (85)	R (100)	S (89)	R (70)	R (100)	R (96)	R (85)	R (85)
R (100)	R (53)	R (93)	S (93)	R (53)	R (100)	R (100)	R (93)	R (53)								
R (100)	S (100)	R (100)	S (75)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	S (63)	R (100)	S (62)	R (75)	R (100)	R (100)	R (100)	S (75)

complex bacteria revealed the presence of diverse Burkholderia species but did not find the bacterial genotypes colonizing the patients (30). Analysis of the toothbrushes of CF patients colonized by P. aeruginosa, of siblings of these patients, and of volunteers showed no statistical relationship between pulmonary colonization and toothbrush contamination (31). Furthermore, studies showed that P. aeruginosa strains adapted to CF airways lose their ability to colonize a new host in a murine model and that hypermutable CF strains lose their survival capacity in tap water (32, 33).

Finally, we showed that environmental strains had wild-type antimicrobial resistance phenotypes, while the 3 patients were colonized by isolates displaying higher resistance toward several antimicrobial agents, including ceftazidime, ertapenem, aminoglycosides, and fluoroquinolones (Table 2), suggesting that no diffusion of transmissible antimicrobial resistance determinants occurred between environmental and clinical Achromobacter isolates of different genotype or species within domestic environment.

Conclusion. We describe the diversity and the habitat of *Achromobacter* in the domestic environments of CF patients chronically colonized by A. xylosoxidans. Despite not being directly involved in the reseeding of CF patient airways during Achromobacter chronic infection, indoor proximal wastewater drains appear to be reservoirs for various emerging pathogens in CF. For this reason, we recommend decontamination of such devices. Habitat delineation of Achromobacter needs further studies with both colonized and noncolonized patients to better understand the worldwide increased prevalence of Achromobacter colonization in CF patients and its possible links to anthropogenic activities, especially to building technology that exposes people at home. This is also true for other water-associated opportunistic pathogens inhabiting technological niches named opportunistic premise plumbing pathogens, such as P. aeruginosa, Legionella pneumophila, and nontuberculous mycobacteria (34). In developed countries, the emergence of these pathogens leads to increased infectious risk for susceptible patients. This emerging hazard gradually replaces the orofecal risk occurring under low-hygiene conditions and needs particular attention for the development of new indicators and detection methods.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

CF patient home selection. Three patients attending the CF center of the Montpellier University Hospital, in the south of France, who were included in two previous studies on Achromobacter chronic colonization, were selected for this environmental study, and their designations were identical in those 2 previous studies and in this one: P2, P5, and P12 (7, 35). The patients were 11, 17, and 19 years old and were chronically colonized by A. xylosoxidans, with colonization durations of 5, 10, and 9 years, respectively, at the time of the study. They were all also chronically colonized by Staphylococcus aureus and sporadically colonized by P. aeruginosa.

The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (Interface Recherche Bioéthique [IRB]) of the Nîmes University Hospital under IRB number 15/07.05. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients or their parents after explanation of the study.

House and apartment description. The patients live in two houses (P2 and P5) and one apartment (P12) located in 3 different cities of the same region (Occitanie, in the south of France). The house of P2 hosted 4 inhabitants and one cat, the house of P5 hosted up to 8 persons and cats, and the apartment of P12 hosted 3 inhabitants and caged birds. The homes of P2, P5, and P12, respectively, included 8, 10, and 7 rooms and had separated toilets and bathrooms. The home of P5 had a water softener connected to the water supply. The two houses included gardens and swimming pools, either permanent or

Sampling and bacterial cultures. From 74 to 119 surface and water samples were collected in every home (see the supplemental material). Wet and dry surfaces were, respectively, sampled with dry swabs (Copan) and sponge swabs (Puritan). All swabs were then discharged into 2 ml of Trypticase soya (TS) broth (Becton Dickinson [BD]), and 100 μ l of the broth was then inoculated onto TS agar and 500 μ l onto an Achromobacter-selective agar medium adapted from that of Amoureux et al. (15) consisting of MacConkey agar (MCK; BD) supplemented with 5 g/liter of xylose, 10 mg/liter of aztreonam, 5 mg/liter of amphotericin B, and 5 mg/liter of vancomycin (Bio-Rad). Water samples (250 ml) were collected in bottles supplemented with 20% thiosulfate (Gosselin) and filtered through 0.45-µm membranes (Sartorius). Bacteria retained on membranes were resuspended in 5 ml of filtered tap water by scraping the membrane with an inoculating loop and vortexing for 2 min. Finally, 100 μ l was inoculated onto TS agar plates and 500 μ l onto Achromobacter-selective agar plates. Fifty and 100 μ l of other collected liquid samples siphon water, dishwasher evacuation, liquid soap, etc. (see the supplemental material) were directly plated on TS agar, and 300 μ l was plated on selective agar. All the seeded agar plates were then incubated at 30°C for 72 h, a temperature allowing the growth of mesophilic bacteria whether of environmental or human clinical origin. For a positive control, we checked that A. xylosoxidans clinical strains colonizing the patients were able to be cultivated after 72 h of incubation at 30°C on both the nonselective and the Achromobacter-selective media.

Achromobacter-specific PCR. Proteobacterial 16S rRNA gene sequences available in RDP-II (https:// rdp.cme.msu.edu/) were aligned with ClustalW of BioEdit software version 7.1.11. Primers were designed in genetic regions conserved in the Achromobacter genus only. Primer specificity was tested in silico using the PROBE MATCH function within the RDP-II database.

PCR was performed in 50 μ l containing 20 pM each primer, 0.2 mM each deoxynucleoside triphosphate (dNTP), 2.5 mM $MgCl_2$, and 0.5 U of Taq polymerase (Promega) in the appropriate buffer and 1 μl of DNA extract obtained from a TS-cultivable community. The conditions for amplification were initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 60°C for 45 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s, with a final extension step for 10 min at 72°C. Amplification product migration was performed in a 1.5% agarose gel in 0.5 imesTris-borate-EDTA buffer containing 500 μ g/ml of ethidium bromide, and gels were visualized under UV transillumination. A. xylosoxidans clinical strains colonizing the patients were used as positive controls

Achromobacter detection and characterization. Cultivable communities obtained on TS agar were harvested and homogenized in 1 ml of physiological saline; 100 μ l of the suspension was frozen at -80° C in TS broth supplemented with 15% glycerol, and 5 μ l was homogenized in 100 μ l of DNA-free sterile water for DNA extraction by thermal shock. Crude extracts were subjected to Achromobacter-specific PCR as described below. Communities obtained on the specific agar plates were stored at 4°C until the results of the specific PCR were available. In the case of a positive PCR result, the corresponding selective agar plates were screened for Achromobacter cultivation; one colony per morphotype (mainly pink and beige) was isolated and identified by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) using a Microflex LT spectrometer and the MALDI Biotyper database (Bruker Daltonics).

Isolates belonging to the genus Achromobacter were subjected to multilocus sequence typing (MLST) as previously described (36), and sequences were analyzed using the Achromobacter PubMLST database available at https://pubmlst.org/achromobacter/. The results obtained for environmental isolates were deposited in the Achromobacter PubMLST database.

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing was performed on Achromobacter species strains using disk diffusion assay as previously described, and results were interpreted according to the breakpoints edited by the Antibiogram Committee of the French Society for Microbiology (http://www.sfm-microbiologie .org/) (CA-SFM 2016) for Acinetobacter or, when not available, according to those for Enterobacteriaceae

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM .01739-18.

SUPPLEMENTAL FILE 1, PDF file, 0.1 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank the patients and their families for welcoming us into their homes for sample collection.

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